

April 26, 2020

To the Graduate Program:

This project, entitled “The process Approach: A n effective methodology for Improving Writing Skills for ELL” and written by Isabel Marcela Mancheno Carrillo, is presented to the Graduate Program of Greensboro College. I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts with a Major in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.

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THE PROCESS APPROACH: AN EFFECTIVE METHODOLOGY FOR IMPROVING
WRITING SKILLS FOR ELLs

Presented to
The Graduate Program
of
Greensboro College

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts in
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
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May 2020

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Abstract

Writing is an integral part of language learning. This language skill is considered a complex cognitive activity that requires students to have control over language conventions and other factors like audience, purpose, and organization. When considering the challenges of teaching and learning writing in a second language for both teachers and learners, studies on this topic suggest that the writing process approach is the best methodology for improving writing performance. This method is useful for language learners because learners are given the opportunity to gain experience through the process of writing. This process encourages students to get involved in prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. These activities, along with peer and teacher feedback, help students craft a final written product for publishing. Therefore, EFL teachers should use the English writing process to help ELL improve their writing skills.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to God. He has been the source of my strength throughout the development of this program. I also dedicate this thesis to my family and friends who has encouraged and supported me to fulfill my studies.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Dr. Michelle Plaisance for the support she has given me throughout my graduation studies. Her optimistic attitude really made a difference. A special thanks to Paula Wilder, my advisor, for her great knowledge, guidance and support throughout the thesis writing process.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Over the years, English, as a foreign language, in Ecuador has undergone modifications. According to a research developed by the British Council, (2015), before 2016, English as a foreign language in public schools (grades 1-6) held the status of an elective subject. The absence of trained teachers, qualified curriculum, deficient infrastructures, and deficit knowledge in terms of methodologies were the main factors that impeded the inclusion of English in the primary school curriculum.

Meanwhile, English learning in secondary schools, grades 7-12, became mandatory in 1992. Since then, the Ministry of Education and Culture of Ecuador, the British Council, and the Curriculum Reform Aimed at the Development of the Learning of English (CRADLE) project was launched to reform the English taught in public and semi-public schools, with the main purpose to ensure that secondary students build a strong foundation in the four language skills. Reading, writing, listening and speaking were fostered through a series of textbooks adapted to the Ecuadorian contexts as well as by providing teachers with technical assistance. In 2012, the English curriculum guidelines were modified to improve the quality of English education in the public sector. Thus, secondary students should be able to reach a minimum of B1 language proficiency (independent users) according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Fortunately, the Ministry of Education, along with National and International institutions and organizations, have developed many programs like “Go Teacher” to support English

instructors in the achievement of advanced levels of English competence to support their teaching of English to students in Ecuador.

Even though significant steps were taken towards improving teaching and learning, they are not enough to cover the professional development needs of all educators; as consequence, students are not receiving appropriate support in their language learning, and their language skill levels are not enough to communicate in English.

Today`s globalized world requires individuals to be effective communicators in English, which means that language learners must be able to master the four language skills: reading, listening, writing and speaking. Reading and listening are receptive skills and learners need these abilities to understand a message, while speaking and writing are productive skills, so learners must be able to produce a message in different settings and contexts.

Productive skills result challenging to master by language learners, specially the writing skill. In fact, Nunan (1989) argued that writing is an extremely difficult cognitive activity which requires the learners have control over various factors. Being writing considered a complex intellectual task that involves component writing skills to create meaningful communication among individuals, researchers have encouraged ESL teachers to apply the writing process approach to support ESL students in their writing development process.

In the 1970s, the writing process approach changed the traditional practiced, focused on the finish product, to a new writing methodology consisting in giving learners the experience of going through the process of writing as writers (Laksmi, 2006). So, to avoid teachers place excessive importance on mechanical errors or just the analysis and the correction of the final written work, there comes the process of writing in various activities or phases that allow writers continually monitor their writing by receiving feedback from teachers and peers. Graves (1983)

suggested that “the processes of writing include prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing” (Laksmi, 2006, pp.145-146).

In addition, Laksmi (2006) stated that the writing phases are more easily understood by EFL classroom contexts. According to Tompkins (2012), these processes, applied by real writers during writing, are recursive. This monitoring mechanism allow “writers to jump back and forth from one activity to another as they write” (p. 5). As a result, it can be said that “each stage of the writing processes helps learners to identify and discuss the activities through the wiring process” (Laksmi, 2006, p. 146). By using the writing process to support EFL learners in the development of their writing, teachers avoid focusing only on language conventions and put more emphasis on the wiring content.

Because the development of the English writing skill in EFL classrooms needs more attention, this project presents a description the five-stage writing process as well as incorporates strategies or activities that can be used by EFL teachers to support the writing development of their students. Thus, students will gain experience in writing skills. In fact, Cramer (2001) stated that the “writing process is not a panacea. But it is a better candidate for improving writing performance than the traditional approach.... We must listen to the critics; we must be willing to rethink and adjust our theories, procedures, and practices. Bu there is not sufficient evidence to cause us to abandon the writing process” (p.39).

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a review of research related to the use of the writing process approach to support writing instruction to English language learners. This review describes theories and research supporting the rationale for using the writing process approach with English as a foreign or second language learners. In addition, it outlines teaching strategies, techniques, and activities for each phase to facilitate the application of the writing process approach in EFL classrooms.

Writing

Writing is the language skill used in most life contexts like school, workplace, and community, and each context demands different levels of writing skills. Rivers (1968) referred to writing as an expression of ideas in a systematic way to organize the graphic conventions of the language, and the writers' final aim at this stage is to have the capacity to express polished literary form which requires the utilization of a special vocabulary and certain refinement structure.

Writing has been recognized as one of the fundamental skills for language learning according to Harmer (1988). However, it is considered by scholars as a complex skill to achieve proficiency by language learners because it requires writers to have control over specific language conventions, purpose, audience and text organization. Jacobs (1981) and Hall (1988) agreed that a text of an effective ESL writer must be cohesive, logical, clearly structured, interesting, and properly organized with a wide range of vocabulary and mastery of conventions in mechanics. In fact, Dar and Khan (2015) and Haider (2012) stated that factors associated with

the academic background, motivation, linguistic, and cognitive competence may influence the production of good pieces of writing.

Nunan (1989) described writing as “an extremely complex cognitive activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of variables simultaneously” (p. 36). At the sentence level, writers should have control of the content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, and spelling and other language mechanics. Beyond the sentence, writers must be able to structure and integrate information into coherent and cohesive paragraphs and text. Furthermore, White and Arndt (1991) stated “writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols: it is thinking process in its own right. It is a permanent record, as a form of expression and as a means of communication” (p. 3). Therefore, writing could be perceived as a complex form of communication that requires conscious intellectual effort and language competence to put thoughts and feelings on paper to convey meaning through well-constructed texts.

The Process Approach to Writing Instruction

By the 1960s, the writing approach was focused on the final written product instead on the process. It was thought that writing only needed error correction to make it better and thinking skills came automatically (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). Teachers realized that focusing exclusively on correcting errors did not seem to support writing development and neither produce good writers. As a result, teachers moved to a new method described as creative writing. On the contrary to the error correction, this methodology avoided correcting the student writing for fear of stifling creativity. In fact, Oral (2003) defined the creative writing approach as putting someone’s ideas and feelings about a particular topic on paper by using his or her imagination

freely. This approach allowed writers to create interesting papers but at the same time teachers had to deal with some compositions containing many mistakes that made it difficult to understand what meaning was being conveyed.

Later, researchers such as Emig (1971) began looking what writers do when they write. Research showed that good writers concentrated on ideas first, leaving correction of language mechanics and grammar structures for editing at the end. So, based on this previous research, the writing process approach was developed to teaching writing.

According to Harmer (2011), the process approach values the process of writing, that is why scholars advocated the use of the process approach to writing in the ESL contexts. In fact, research on English language learning explained that writing process is similar for both first and second language writers, but it is important to point out that language learners can experience some limitations in terms of vocabulary, syntax, and idiomatic expressions. In addition, English learners have not had previous exposure to written English as native speakers had in early literacy. Therefore, EFL and ESL teachers need to create and provide students with opportunities to write with different purposes and audiences to help them improve and promote language acquisition. Taking into consideration these factors, writing process approach gives learners the chance to experience the writing processes as writers.

Emphasizing the importance of the process approach to writing instruction, Brown (2001) stated that in the process approach, the students can manage their own writing because they get a chance to think as they write. In this approach students' writing on a given topic is not limited by the time constraint. As Raimes (1983) stated, "while writing in the process approach students do not have any restriction of time ... rather they explore a topic through writing" (p. 10). The writing process approach also breaks up the writing assignment into smaller components to help

learners focus on one task at a time. This methodology provides learners the opportunity to continually monitor their compositions. In other words, as writers develop their writing, they can return to make any additions, changes or improvements to their work.

Thus, in the process of writing, learners experience five interrelated phrases. Graves (1983) suggested that the processes include prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing.

Table 1. The writing process (Adapted from Laksmi, 2006. 146-147)

Stage 1: Prewriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students write on topics based on their own experiences. • Students gather and organize ideas. • Students define a topic sentence. • Students write an outline for their writing.
Stage 2: Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students write a rough draft. • Students emphasize content rather than mechanics.
Stage 3: Revising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students reread their writings. • Students share their writings with teacher. • Students participate constructively in discussion about their writing with teacher. • Students make changes in their compositions to reflect the reactions and comments of teacher. Also, students make substantive rather than only minor changes.
Stage 4: Editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students proofread their own writings. • Students increasingly identify and correct their own mechanical errors.
Stage 5: Publishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students make the final copy of their writings. • Students publish their writings in appropriate forms. • Students share their finished writings with the teacher.

According to Laksmi (2006), these phases can be used to teach writing to English language learners because they are more easily understood in the EFL classroom context. Silva (1990) argued that the process approach used in teaching composition to native speakers was utilized as a methodology for teaching ELL writing. Additionally, Raimes (1983) pointed out that writing teachers should focus on teaching writing as a process and how to convey meaning, construct forms, and select vocabulary. Consequently, the teachers' role became not only editing and correcting errors; instead it mainly focused to helping students develop the writing skills by having them experience the writing process stages (Lincoln & Ben, 2015).

Tompkins (2012) emphasized that the writing processes or phases are also applied by experienced writers during their writing. One essential part of this process is that writing has recursive view. Using this monitoring mechanism allow "writers to jump back and forth from one activity to another as they write" (p. 5). In fact, writers' experts have noted that the writing process is individualized and does not occur in any fixed order. (Beaugrande, 1984; Bridwell, 1980; & Witte, 1987).

Taking into consideration that the writing process approach in native and second language learners are similar as a physical activity that goes through various phases such as prewriting, drafting, and revising until editing a final product. At the same time, it differs as a mental activity that requires non- native writers to encourage in extra efforts when they want to express, argue, or discuss thoughts and concepts in a second language (Brown, 2007). Therefore, each phase of the writing process counts with specific activities and strategies that help learners to develop their writing skills.

Strategies, techniques and activities to support students in the development of the writing process.

Since writing skills are recognized as a demanding process in language learning, the researchers Pishghadam and Ghanizadeh (2006) suggested that EFL students need more planning and thus more learning strategies and techniques to overcome difficulties and organize their ideas in a coherent and unified piece of writing (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). Additionally, Zamel (1982) stated that the writing behavior of native and ELL writers is similar, therefore, the same strategies can be used to support students to gather their ideas, write their first draft, and editing a final composition.

Pre-writing strategies.

The purpose of the prewriting phase according to Tompkins (2012) is choosing a topic, gathering and organizing ideas, considering the potential audience, identifying the purpose of the writing and choosing an appropriate genre. To accomplish these tasks, Peregoy and Boyle (2017) suggested strategies like talking and oral activities, brainstorming, clustering, questioning, reading, and keeping journals in all content areas. Likewise and Baroudy (2008) enhanced the use of brainstorming as a prewriting activity, while Lee (2013) assumed that concept mapping strategy enhances students' communicative interaction to promote their L2 writing. Similarly, Gilbert and Greene (2002) stated that collaborative concept mapping can facilitate higher-order thinking. Kamal (2015) suggested that students can interview someone who is an expert on the writing topic who will supply the learner with a perspective on their topic, which is often more interesting and more up-to-date than the information that comes from reading alone.

Drafting strategies.

In this stage, learners write their ideas down on paper. The purpose of this stage according to Peregoy and Boyle (2017) is to get ideas down on paper and develop a first draft. Tompkins (2012) also suggested key features of this stage would be to emphasize writing a rough draft, crafting leads to grab readers' attention, and emphasizing context rather than conventions. To fulfill these tasks successfully, Peregoy and Boyle (2017) suggested strategies like fast writing, daily writing, journals of all types, buddy journals, dialogue journals, and learning logs.

Bromley (1989), supported the use of buddy journals to engage students in meaningful, self-selected dialogues about topics of interest while Peyton and Reed (1990) encouraged the use of dialogue journals to enhance students' writing, which provides authentic two-way written interaction between the teacher and the student. One of the benefits of dialogue journals for second language learners is the development of writing fluency (Holmes & Moulton, 1997; McGrail, 1996; Peyton, 1990, 2000).

Revising strategies and techniques.

Students at this phase are required to revise and improve their writing. Tompkins (2012) claimed that "revision is not just polishing writing; it is meeting the needs of readers through adding, substituting, deleting, and rearranging material" (p. 9). The purpose of this stage according to Peregoy and Boyle (2017) is to reorder arguments or support information, and review or change sentences. In the revising phase, teachers can apply strategies, such as shortening sentences, combining sentences, peer response groups, teacher conferences, and show and not tell (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). Laksmi (2006) also promoted the use of self-revision to

encourage students to reread their writing on their own and make any change that the work requires to be complete.

Another strategy that can be used according to Heald-Taylor (1986) is conference interviews. This strategy improves the learners' stories by adding more details to their writing using descriptive language, organizing information, and developing skills in phonetics, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Heald-Taylor (1986) also described two types of conferences: the content conference and the skill conference. In the content conference, the teacher asks the student for more information about their story while in the skill conference, the student and teacher will focus on writing skills. such as phonetics, spelling, grammar, and punctuation

Editing strategies and techniques.

In this stage, students work to make their writing “optimally readable” (Laksmi, 2006, p. 153). Tompkins (1990) defined editing as “putting the piece of writing into its final form” (p. 88). The changes that take place in the editing stage are capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and grammar. Among the strategies that Peregoy and Boyle (2017) outlined to support the editing task are: peer editing group, proofreading, computer programs for spelling, programmed materials, and mini lessons.

Kamal (2015) also suggested self-editing and teacher editing as strategies. The self-editing strategy allows learners to go through their piece of writing line by line to make sure that each sentence, phrase, and word is as strong as possible. An editing checklist, which is provided by the teacher, is necessary to check and correct their mistakes, such as capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and grammar mistakes. According to Tribble (1996), editing checklists enable students to focus more on specific points in the editing stage. However, teacher editing

requires teachers to give comments or use correction symbols to their writings to help learners to think about their mistakes, and then correct by themselves. Students think about their mistakes and correct them (Harmer, 2004, p. 111).

Publishing strategies and techniques.

In this stage, students end up with their final writing draft, and they will publish their writing. The main purpose of this stage, according to Peregoy and Boyle (2017) is to have students sharing their compositions with one another, with students, with parents, and with teachers. Likewise, Peregoy and Boyle (2017) suggested various strategies like writing shared in many formats, papers placed on bulletin boards, papers published with computers, papers shared in the school book fairs, and blogs to show that students' writing is valued.

Publishing has its advantages for the students; Tompkins (1990) stated that sharing student's writing with an appropriate audience motivates learners to improve their composition. Therefore, having students to publish their written work to real audiences enable them to meaningfully respond to their writing and increase their confidence as authors. In addition, Elbow (2012) believed that publishing is the best way to encourage students to revise and edit their writing.

Conclusion

Based on the previous research, it can be affirmed that the writing process approach assists learners in their English writing development. This approach emphasizes five phases that any piece of writing goes through such as pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. In the prewriting stage, the writers define the topic and focus on getting ideas with a particular

purpose and audience on mind. In the second stage, drafting, writers concentrate on getting their ideas down on papers. Students emphasize on content rather than mechanics. In the next stage, revising, learners reread their compositions and make changes regarding to vocabulary, organization and clarity. Once the ideas are clear and well organized, the students are moved to the editing stage. At this point, writers concentrate on correcting spelling, punctuation and other mechanics before publishing the papers.

The writing process approach primary focus on ideas, organization, and clarity of the paper rather than spelling, punctuations and mechanics. The error corrections are made in the editing phase to encourage students first focus on the developing of the content. To sum up, this writing approach begins promoting students to generate ideas on a particular topic and moves forward to the accomplishment of a well-organized and clear piece of writing.

Chapter 3: Project Design

Writing is an integral part of communication and recognized by Harmer (1998) as one of the fundamental skills in language learning. According to Nunan (1989), writing is a complex cognitive activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of variables simultaneously such as content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, and spelling. Additionally, beyond language mechanics, the writer must be able to structure and organize the information into a cohesive and coherent text.

The fact that writing in a second language is perceived as a complex process that involves the knowledge of language conventions, structures, and the development of rhetorical and thinking skills, ESL learners required explicit instruction and continuous feedback to develop writing skills. Therefore, EFL teachers must apply methodologies that allow learners to put into practice what real writers do during their writing (Tompkins, 2012), so considering the ESL learners writing needs, “one such strategy, the process approach to writing, has been enthusiastically embraced by bilingual and ESL teachers and researchers have discussed the importance of teaching English learners composing, revising, and editing processes” (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017, p. 290). Graves (1983) also stated that the application of the writing process approach has been regarded as the most suitable methodology that improves writing. This methodology gives the students the experience of going through the process of writing as writers.

The writing process approach is a methodology that provides learners the experience to go through processes, activities, or stages that include, according to Graves (1983), prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing. The writing process approach according to Tompkins

(2012) “is a way of looking at what writers think and do as they write” (p. 4). Laksmi (2006) supported the idea that the writing stages are more easily understood in the EFL classroom context. Tompkins (2012) also argued that the writing process approach is recursive, which means that writers continually monitor their writing and move back and forth among the activities. In other words, “writers jump back and forth from one activity to another as they write” (Tompkins, 2012, p. 5).

Additionally, the use of the writing process approach in EFL classrooms helps teachers avoid placing excessive importance on mechanical errors or language conventions rather than content (Tompkins, 2012). Instead, in the writing process approach, each stage of the writing processes helps learners to identify and discuss the activities through the process of writing (Laksmi, 2006), so educators can apply the writing process approach and their activities in their EFL classrooms to support and scaffold students during the development of their compositions. However, an important factor to take into consideration, according to Peregoy and Boyle (2017), is that students require English language proficiency at either advanced, beginning, or intermediate levels to have full participation in the process approach.

The final product of this project will be a booklet which contains the description of the writing process approach phases and useful activities or strategies for each stage to help teachers guide their students during the writing instruction. By breaking the writing task into manageable parts, the process approach makes writing easier to teach and learn. Consequently, “students can focus on one task at a time and experience the value of peer feedback in developing ideas for effective written expression” (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017, p. 288)

Chapter 4: Project

The Writing Process Approach: Strategies and techniques

The writing process approach, which started gaining broad writing classroom practice in the 1970s, changed the traditional practiced focused on the finished product to a new writing methodology consisting in giving learners the experience of going through the process of writing as writers (Laksmi, 2006). Therefore, instead of the analysis and correction of the final written work, there comes the process of writing in a number of stages as Graves (1983) suggested that the process include prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing.

These stages can be implemented in EFL classrooms to meet learners writing needs and support them in their writing development. In fact, Laksmi (2006) stated that “these stages are more easily understood in EFL classroom contexts” (p. 146). Also, according to Tompkins (2012) the writing process that actual writers apply during their writing is recursive. By using this “monitoring mechanism, writers jump back and forth from one activity to another as they write (Tompkins, 2012, p. 5). As a result, the process approach seems to have positive impact in EFL students because “each stage of this process helps learners to identify and discuss the activities throughout the process of writing “(Laksmi, 2006, p. 146). Additionally, Tompkins (2012) stated that “writers personalize the writing process to meet their own needs and vary it according the writing assignment” (p. 6).

With that being said, this chapter incorporates activities and techniques that teachers can use throughout the five-stage writing processes to support their students in their writing

development. The suggested activities are explained in detail on how to apply in EFL classrooms during the writing sessions.

Prewriting strategies and activities.

Prewriting is the first stage in the writing process. In 1986, Proett and Gill stated that prewriting includes any “experience, activity, or exercise that motivates a person to write, that generates material and ideas for writing, or that focuses a writer’s attention on a particular subject. Prewriting stimulates and enlarges through and moves writers from the stage of thinking about a writing task to the act of writing” (p. 5). Murray (1982) believed that 70% or more of writing time should be spent in prewriting. At this stage, the writers focus on the subject of his or her writing and the audience, and plan about what they are going to write before starting their writings.

To help students develop ideas, generate plans, serve initial stimulus for writing and provide motivation, specific activities such as the ones recommended below can be found effectively helpful.

1. Choosing a topic.

When concerning to choosing a topic, research suggests that sometimes students choose their own topics, and at other times, teachers specify the topics, or students and teachers select the topics collaboratively (Chandler-Olcott & Mahar, 2001). Graves (1976) argued that students should choose their own topics because they become more motivated and passionate writers. Letting students to choose their topics of interest increase their communicative language ability because they select a topic that they have knowledge about. Thus, they will be able to express

their ideas more fluently. Additionally, students choosing their own topic support them in feeling confidence about what they must write down. (Aziz, 2015).

Instruction purposes may direct teachers to specify writing topics, so students can learn how to handle new writing tasks, including those they might not choose for themselves. This can help students to be able to deal topics regardless of personal interest (Tompkins, 2012).

However, there might be cases in which some students have difficulties in selecting topics for their writing and they cannot decide what to write about, in this situation they can work with their teacher and classmates to choose writing topics collaboratively by brainstorming a list of topics and then choosing one that they are more interested in and have enough knowledge about (Laksmi, 2006, pp. 147-148).

2. Considering the purpose.

Writers need to identify their writing purpose. These questions might help them in reaching this task: Are they writing to entertain? Are they writing to inform? Are they writing to persuade? This decision about the purpose influences other decisions they make about audience and form. (Tompkins (2012).

3. Considering audience.

Possible audience for students can include classmates, parents, grandparents, and pen pals. Teachers can become a trusted adult, a partner in a dialogue, or a judge (Britton et al., 1975), and how writers perceive these roles are crucial. Tompkins (2012) explained that when writing for a trusted adult, learners feel secure because they rely on their reader to respond sympathetically, and when crafting a dialogue with a teacher, they assume that he or she will be an interested

reader, responding to what's been written, not how it was written. At this point, teachers should avoid taking the role of a judge because students will produce writing to receive a grade.

4. Considering genre.

Writers need to consider what form will the writing take? A story? A letter? A poem? An essay? There's an endless variety of texts and digital genres, but too often the choices are limited to stories, poems, and reports. Instead, students need experiment with a wide variety of genres and explore the purposes and the formats of each. Through reading and writing, students can develop a strong sense of these forms and how they are structured. (Tompkins, 2012). During the instruction, it is crucial that teachers use the genre terminology and do not label all writing as stories. Some English learners are not familiar with genres, so "they benefit from explicit instruction to be able to succeed in school and activity participate in the dominant community" (Gibbons 2002, p. 60).

5. Gathering ideas.

Students can have difficulties gathering ideas for their writing. Therefore, techniques like brainstorming reading and interviewing can guide and stimulate them to gather ideas for their writing (Laksmi, 2006, pp. 145-146). Tompkins (2012) also suggested to use techniques like drawing pictures, doing online research, talking to classmates and the teacher, reading stories, informational nooks, and other texts.

5.1 Brainstorming.

Brainstorming is a common prewriting technique. According to Proett and Gill (1986), the purpose of these technique is to gather a variety of ideas, opinions, and viewpoints about any given topic and place them before the group, either on the board or on a chart. Anyone may contribute any idea related to the topic. No judgements, criticisms, or alterations of ideas are made during brainstorming sessions. Subsequently, from this collection of contributions the writer may discard and organize the ideas to write on a paper. Spivey (2006) stated that writers can “use diagrams or randomly listing ideas to help themselves develop both ideas and words list for their writing, decide the sort of writing, audience, and determine the purpose for their writing” (p.1) In addition, seeing listed ideas together on paper will aid writers to make connections and look at their topics again from a new perspective (Blystone, 2009)

5.2. Reading.

According to Leibensperger (2003) reading may be very useful for those students when they are not familiar with a topic that they are going to write about. In this case, reading helps students to collect enough information and interesting vocabulary about their topic. Therefore, as to gather ideas for their own topic, students are jotting down ideas from what they have read, and they are making lists of the most interesting ideas that they might want for their topic. To achieve this purpose, students can do online research, or search the university or public library for any books or any other sources about their topic.

5.3. Interviewing or direct experience.

Student is talking to someone who is an expert on the writing topic and he or she will supply the learner with a perspective on topic, which is often more interesting and more up-to-date than the information that comes from reading alone. An expert is an individual who has experience on the topic that the learner is going to write about. At this point, to avoid plagiarism students must give credit to the interviewee that he or she interviewed (Blystone, 2009).

5.4. Clustering.

According to Proett and Gill (1986), clustering is a special application of brainstorming, which collects the rich development of data or ideas brainstorming offers while adding and organizational element to the collection, tends to generate ideas and focus them on paper while patterns emerge naturally within the cluster. Clustering is self-directed, once introduced, and can be used any level of the students in any time allotment or class structure. A large quantity of specific details can be amazed very quickly and used as the basis for an organized paper. In cluttering, the students record a topic or concept in the middle of the page, and then begins to gather ideas into clusters around the central concept.

5.5. Word Bank.

The word bank is an activity that requires students to list words that come to their mind about specific topic and then categorizing them, or the categories can be shown first, and the words listed in each category. Students may work individually or in groups, with the words being written on the board.

5.6 Mapping.

This technique is similar to brainstorming, except that it presents a graphic representation of key words to be used in a composition; it adds a visual dimension that helps students gain greater control of and fluency in thinking and writing. In order to develop this technique, students first list words, then organize into categories as in a word bank. Next, students arrange these categories and words on a map. The topic or main idea must be placed in a dominant position and the supporting ideas as extensions. A pinwheel shape is only one of the many configurations which may develop. Others may be triangles, concentric circles, ladders, or road maps. New ideas often emerge during mapping, and additions and deletions are encouraged. Based on the map, a topic sentence and paragraphs can be drafted by a group, or students may work individually developing their own drafts.

5.7 Freewriting.

According to Peregoy and Boyle (2017), freewriting is a strategy developed by Elbow (1973). This strategy allows writers to let their words flow freely onto the page without concern for coherence, form, or correctness. When using freewriting in ELF classrooms, teachers encourage students to write quickly to get their ideas down on paper for a specific period of time. After that, students select a phrase or sentence they like and write about that for five minutes. This process can continue until the students have discovered a topic or theme that they want to write about.

5.8 Pre-learning logs.

According to Proett and Gill (1986), logs allow teachers to keep a check on the dynamics of the learning process rather than examining just its final product. When applying this strategy, teachers can use either of the two suggestions:

Plan 1: Before introducing a new concept or unit, give students five minutes to explain in writing what they already know about the topic. Then, gather students in small groups and share exactly what they have written. After that, the group develops questions to better understand the concept or topic.

After completing a lesson or unit, have students to explained what they have learned about the concept and compare that knowledge with the preliminary log entry. Thus, students can be aware of how much they have learned.

Plan 2: Have students to write down one sentence and one question indicating what they know about the topic or content. The sentences and questions may be posted on the wall during the unit or lesson study. At the end of the lesson or unit, check along with the students if the questions are answered and if understandings and concepts are clear for students.

6. Organizing ideas.

Once the students have gathered information or ideas by using the technique of their choice, they go through the ideas and cross out the irrelevant information or the information that no longer seems in use to the topic. Then, put the ideas that most closely related together in the group that belong with, so at this stage you do not need worrying about the order of the ideas. “Look critically at the ideas that you put in groups to identify the ideas that lack sufficient support to the topic” (Cameron, 2009, pp. 2-4).

7. Defining a topic sentence.

After organizing ideas, students write down their topic sentence. Students have been taught about the importance of topic sentence, in an essay body paragraph, that unifies the contents of the paragraph. Clear topic sentence helps the readers anticipate what will come based on what they have already seen (Meyers, 2005, p. 28). In fact, creating a clear topic sentence is not only helpful for the reader but also for the writer. For instance, topic sentence helps the writer organize the main ideas of the essay, which also create unity in each of the paragraphs.

8. Outlining.

A piece of writing consists of introduction part, body paragraph part and conclusion part. In introduction part, students introduce their topic with a general statement in a way grab readers' attention. Then, starting with thesis statement, which should be in a concise sentence and meaningful in a way to lead your reader know where you are going (Connolly, 2004, 7-9). "While in body paragraph part students first learn how to start with a topic sentence, which needs to be clearly state the main idea of the paragraph without being wordy and hard to comprehend. Also, it needs to be related to the focused thesis statement that mentioned in the introduction part. Then, giving the supporting details with examples to support what is mentioned in the topic sentence. Finally, in conclusion part, learners are not giving new ideas about their topic, on the contrary they summarize their ideas and re-assert the thesis statement, but the summarization should be written in fresh language "(Freedman & Plotnick, p. 2)

Drafting strategies and activities.

Once the learners have developed and organized their ideas, the next step is to start drafting; in other words, they focus on getting their ideas down on a paper (Tompkins, 2012). The first draft of their writing may contain lots of errors like incomplete ideas and mechanical mistakes. So, student at this point do not worry about correcting the errors, because the aim of putting their ideas into sentence is greater than correcting spelling, punctuation, grammar, and other errors. Tompkins (2012), explained that writers at this stage are involved in these activities:

a. Writing a rough draft.

Students' drafts should be written in double-space to give adequate space for self-revising or teacher's comments and facilitate reading and drafting. If the students are writing their compositions on paper, teachers should remind them to skip lines, so then they will have space to make revisions and corrections by hand. Similarly, they write on only one side of a sheet of paper so that the paper can be cut apart or rearranged during the next stage. (Tompkins, 2012).

At this stage, teachers do not emphasize correct spelling even though they should expect students to spell common words correctly and write legibly. In 1982, Sommers noted that when teachers point out errors during drafting, they send a false message that correctness matters more than content. It's better to postpone correction to the fourth stage, editing, when students correct conventions and other errors. (Tompkins, 2012).

b. Crafting leads.

Tompkins (2012) stated that the crafting lead or opening sentence is crucial. Students who consider audience as they write will want to grab their readers' attention by using a variety

of techniques, such as asking questions, listing facts, adding a dialogue, retelling a brief story, a describing a problem. Graves (2003) and Calkins (1994) recommended that students brainstorm several leads and try them out on classmates before choosing one. As students work on leads, they gain valuable knowledge about how to manipulate language and vary the viewpoint.

Some drafting strategies that Peregoy and Boyle (2017) suggested are personal journals, buddy journals, dialogue journals, and learning log.

c. Personal journals.

Proett and Gill (1986) defined a journal as a record of ideas, thoughts, questions, and impressions that come into a person's mind and are put down in writing in a special book. Journals encourage students to write often, develop fluency on recording ideas and feelings, and provide the initial focus for subsequent writing assignments. Teachers may assign journal writing for about ten minutes or so once or twice a week, usually at the beginning of the period. The journal writing can be about anything students wish, or teachers may give a choice of two or three journal "starters". Generally, grammar, punctuation, and organization are not marked, teachers merely record that students wrote in their journals.

d. Dialogue journals.

According to Peregoy and Boyle (2017), "dialogue journals develop fluency because they are meaningful, because they are responded to and because they give writers the freedom to concentrate on what they are saying rather than on how they are saying it" (p. 313). These journals can be used daily or often in the classrooms. The students write about specific any topic and teachers respond to the content or something the student has highlighted for the teacher.

Teachers responses will be related to the content, not to the form of the writing. It is also important that teachers concentrate on positive things to say or suggestions regarding to what they might write about in future journal entries.

e. Buddy journals.

Bromley (1995) defined a buddy journal as a written conversation between two students. This type of journal involves students in meaningful, self-selected dialogues about issues that concern them. Furthermore, these journals give learners the immediate feedback they require for growth and a real audience and purpose for their writing (Peregoy and Boyle, 2017).

Teachers may follow this procedure for applying the buddy journal strategy in the classroom. Explain students that they will write and respond to one another about classroom topics or other topics and the respond is to the content and not to the form of the message. Next, assign pairs to work with one another, explaining that they with have more opportunities to work with other partner thought the semester or school year.

f. Learning log.

The learning log, according to Peregoy and Boyle (2017), helps both teachers and students. Learning logs support students articulate what is learned and ask questions for self-assessments while teacher can evaluate student`s progress. Teachers can apply this activity by asking students to keep a daily log of their knowledge, confusions or any elaborations they may wish to make relating to the topics discussed in class. Students can keep this journal private or share with he teacher.

Revising strategies and activities.

Tompkins (2012) explained that the word “revision” literally means, “to see again.” In this stage, students revise and improve their compositions again by having their classmates and the teacher supporting them. Students are not required to correct minor grammar mistakes, but they should pay particular attention to the content and organization of their writing (Bae, 2011, p. 22). Tompkins, (2012) claimed that “revision is not just polishing writing; it is meeting the needs of readers through adding, substituting, deleting, and rearranging material” (p. 9). So, according to him revising is a good opportunity for the students to refine their writing during this stage. In revising stage, Tompkins (2012), suggested these activities: rereading the rough draft, sharing the rough draft and revising on the basis of feedback.

a. Rereading the rough draft.

After finishing the first draft, writers need to distance themselves from the writing for a day or two and then reread it from a fresh perspective, as a reader might. As students reread, they make changes by adding, substituting, deleting, and moving material and place question marks by sections that need work. Students can self-revise their drafts by following the questions (Table 2), which are adapted from Tribble (1996) to improve students’ writing in the revision stage.

Table 2. Self-revise questions (derived from Tribble, 1996, p. 116)

1	Is it correctly organized on the page?
2	Is the information presented in a clear, logical order?
3	Have you put in all the information your reader needs?
4	Have you put in unnecessary information?

b. Revising groups.

Students can meet in small groups to share their drafts with classmates. Mohr (1984) stated that revising groups provide suggestions, show different revision possibilities, and speed up revising. Tompkins explained that revising groups can be spontaneous or more formal. In the classroom, revising groups form spontaneously, when students finish writing, they can go to a special table. As soon as a student is ready to share their writing, he or she moves to the special table, and others, who are available to listen and respond to the writing join to the group. When three or four students are gathered, the writer reads the draft, and then others respond to it offering complements and relating this piece to their own experiences and knowledge about writing.

However, revising groups are more formal when groups meet when everyone has completed a draft, and he or she is ready to share. The teacher participates in these groups, providing feedback along with students.

c. Revising centers to provide feedback.

According to Tompkins (2012), the revising centers are used for teachers to differentiate instruction. The teacher sets up different centers in the classroom corners or another designated area. Each area focuses on a writing strategy or an aspect of the writer's craft, and students work at one or more centers as they revise their rough drafts. In these centers, students discuss with their classmates about their ideas in their writing, examine the organization of the draft by making a diagram, improve their choice of words by consulting a thesaurus, or complete a checklist to make sure they have included all the required components in their compositions. Some examples of revising centers, according Tompkins are:

- Organizing centers: By using a chart, students illustrate the organization of their composition to make revisions on its effectiveness and completion.
- Rereading centers: In this center, students read their writings and the partners offer complements and ask questions.
- Word choice centers: Students choose 5-10 words in their drafts and look for more specific synonyms using a thesaurus, classroom word walls, or suggestions from a classmate.
- Sentences centers: Students choose a section of their drafts with too many short sentences and combine sentences to improve the flow of ideas.
- Titles center: Students brainstorm possible titles for their composition at this center.
- Highlighting centers: Depending on the strategies and skills being taught, they may be directed to highlight topic sentences, descriptive language, transition between ideas, or genre characteristics.

Editing strategies and activities.

According to Tompkins (2012), editing is putting the piece of writing into its final form. As this stage is focused on the writing conventions, “students polish their writings by correcting spelling and other errors”. In this stage students work to make their writing ‘optimally readable’ (Tompkins, 2012, p. 12).

The writing conventions that students need take into consideration on editing stage are capitalization, punctuation, spelling, sentence structure, and grammar and usage, and formatting considerations that are specific in different writing genres.

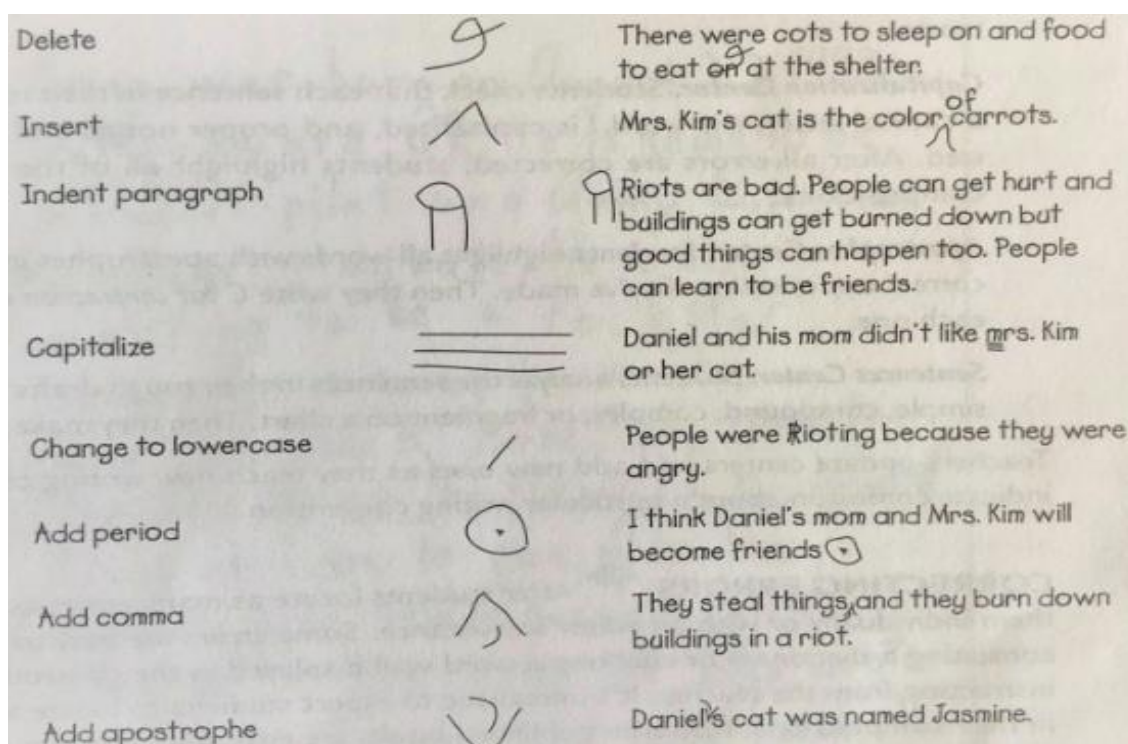
In this stage, writers can be involved in these activities:

a. Proofreading.

According to Proett and Gill (1986), Proofreading is the job of cleaning up the paper and eliminating surface errors. The students check their compositions to detect and mark possible errors. Teachers can develop editing checklists to help students focus on particular types of errors as they proofread their compositions. Check lists may vary according the writers` grade level. Tompkins (2012) suggested that first grade checklists may have items about using capital letters at the beginning of a sentence and putting a period at the end of a sentence. In contrast, a middle grade checklist contains items using commas in a series, indenting paragraphs, capitalizing proper nouns and adjectives, and spelling homonyms correctly. Throughout the school year, teachers should revise the checklist to focus students` attention on skills they have taught recently.

Tompkins (2012) presented an example of proofread checklist (see Figure 1) with correction symbols to help teachers as well students to identify errors in the drafts.

Figure 1. Proofreaders` marks (derived from Tompkins, 2012, p.13).



Kamal, (2015) stated that students should self-edit their drafts by going through his or her piece of writing line by line to make sure that each sentence, phrase or word is as accurate as possible, so for this purpose he or she uses editing checklists, which is provided by the teacher (Tale 3) to check and correct his or her writing mistakes, such as capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and grammar mistakes.

According to Tribble (1996) editing checklists enables students focus more on specific points in the editing stage (p. 116).

Table 3. Editing checklist (Tribble, 1996, p. 116)

1	I used the alternative word instead of repeating the same word again and again.	
2	I rewrote the sentences, which were hard to understand so as to make my thought clearer?	
3	I checked every single sentence to correct my grammatical mistakes.	

4	I checked every single word to correct my spelling mistakes	
5	I checked every single line of my writing to use punctuation marks correctly.	

b. Recording response.

In this method, the teacher will read the papers ahead of time, making suggestions for revision or asking questions for clarification, but these comments must be recorded. The comments may be general, about organization and overall impact, or they may refer to specific items such as a shifting tense of the third paragraph of a text on page three. Then, the students, with the papers in hand, listen to the recordings during class and make notes. According to Proett and Gill (1986), this has proved a useful technique that takes no teacher class time but provides concentrated and individualized help to students.

c. Students trading.

During the class, the students exchange their papers with other students, who will read them, mark them in some specified manner, sign the name as readers, and pass them on to the next readers. Teachers can organize the activities in this way: The first readers could be asked to underline one or more outstanding phrases or sentences; the second readers could be asked to circle any particularly vivid verbs; and the third readers can put boxes around unusually descriptive adjective (Proett & Gill, 198).

d. Class trading.

In this activity, the students as a class silently read as many of one another's compositions as they can within a given period of time. A scoring rubric or comment sheet

should be used with each paper and stapled underneath when each student finishes reading the paper. Additionally, each student can keep a record of the papers read during the class exchange. Proett and Gill notified that students find this strategy very satisfying. The classroom is quiet and efficient, and students want to read more papers even when the time is up.

e. Outside reaction.

This strategy requires that students take their writing to someone other than their teacher or other students to have it read and briefly recommended on. The outside readers can be parents, relatives, or any other trusted adults. Proett and Gill (1986) stated that this is a good strategy specially if students have written autobiographies, short stories, collections of poems, children`s books, or self-created magazines. It is significant for the teachers to communicate to the outside readers the purpose of the assignment and the criteria to look for.

d. Yes-no questionnaire.

Proett and Gill (1986) stated that in a writing activity, the criteria for both content and form can e converted into a series of yes-no questions that even unsophisticated students can successfully answer about a fellow student`s paper. Proett and Gill (1986) also recommended that the questions need to be worded so that a “yes” answer reflects a satisfactory accommodation to the criterion. On the contrary, a negative answer marks a point where revision is necessary. The challenge to the writer in this strategy is to revise the paper to turn all the no answers into yes answers.

e. Teacher reading.

In this strategy, the teacher reads a number of compositions or special paragraphs, phrases, or sentences aloud to the whole class, without critical comment. The purpose of this activity, according to Proett and Gil (1986), is to let the students hear what other students have written. The writers' names may either be withheld or included. When this strategy is used, more and more students are eager to have their papers read aloud.

f. Editing centers.

In editing stage, teachers can also provide individualized instruction by using editing centers. These centers help students focus on spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and other writing conventions. According to Tompkins (2012) teachers who work with older students may organize these centers in their classrooms.

Table 4. Editing centers (Adapted from Tompkins, 2012, p. 14)

Spelling Center	Pair work. Students proofread their rough drafts, locate misspelled words and turn to their classmates for assistance or use a dictionary to correct them.
Homophones Center	Students work with a partner to check their rough drafts for homophone errors.
Punctuation center	Students look for any missing punctuation or change any punctuation marks used incorrectly. Then they can use a highlighter pens to draw attention to the punctuation marks, score how many of each type they have used, and complete a chart to document their use of punctuation marks.
Capitalization center	Students check that each sentence in their writings begins with capital letter. They also check for proper nouns and adjectives that must be capitalized. Then students highlight all of the capital letters in their compositions.

Apostrophes center	Students highlight all the words with apostrophes in their compositions and correct any mistake they have made. Then they write C for contraction and P for possessive above each one.
Sentences center	Students analyze the sentences in their drafts and categorize them as simple, compound, complex, or fragment on a chart. Then they make any necessary changes.

g. Correcting errors.

Once the students have identified as many errors as possible, they can correct them individually or with an editor's assistance. Some errors are easy to correct by students, some require consulting a dictionary or a word wall displayed in the classroom, but others involve instruction from the teacher. Editing ends after students and editors correct as many mechanical errors as possible, or students can meet with the teacher in a conference for a final editing. The teacher proofreads the composition with the student and assist in identifying and correcting the remaining errors, or the teacher make checkmarks in the margin to note errors that students correct later independently.

Kamal (2015) explained in her journal that the teacher is not going to edit the students' compositions by himself or herself, on the contrary he or she is going to comment and use corrections symbols (Figure 2) to help the students to think about their mistakes and then correct them by themselves.

Figure 2. Correction symbols (adapted from Harmer, 2004, p. 111).

Symbol	Meaning	Example of error
<i>S</i>	A spelling error	<i>He has a <u>fuuny</u> hairstyle.</i>
<i>WO</i>	A mistake in word order	<i>I <u>like very much</u> it.</i>
<i>G</i>	A grammar mistake	<i>He <u>give</u> us only a half hour for dinner without any other rest.</i>
<i>T</i>	Wrong verb tense	<i>I went to the bookshop and I <u>buy</u> a book.</i>
<i>C</i>	Concord mistake (e.g. subject and verb agreement)	<i>He <u>always telling</u> the dumb jokes.</i>
<i>Λ</i>	Something has been left out.	<i>I <u>Λ</u> too tired.</i>
<i>WW</i>	Wrong word	<i>I like and interest <u>on</u> my job.</i>
<i>{ }</i>	Something is not necessary.	<i>She wasn't {very} funny enough.</i>
<i>?M</i>	The meaning is unclear.	<i>I don't like the hours 4 to 9.</i>
<i>P</i>	A punctuation mistake	<i><u>one</u> of my coworkers is Shorsh.</i>
<i>F/I</i>	Too formal or informal	<i>We didn't have enough time to have a <u>chat</u>.</i>

Brown (2001) suggested that teachers have guidelines, such as an editing checklist in (Table 5) to help students not miss any checkpoints. At this stage, “teachers only indicate grammatical mechanical errors, but they are not correcting them by themselves, and also teachers can suggest further transitional words and word choices to make better or improve the students’ writing coherence and clarity” (p. 356).

Tale 5. Editing checklist (derived from Laksmi, 2006, p. 154).

_____	1. I have circled misspelled words.
_____	2. I have checked all sentences beginning with capital letters.
_____	3. I have checked all sentences ending with punctuation marks.
_____	4. I have checked the structure of each sentence.

Teachers need to take into consideration that some students can correct their mistakes easily whereas some of them need the teacher’s help to correct their mistakes, so they go to the

teacher, and they make a conference with him or her to understand their mistakes and how to make necessary adjustments in their writing (Laksmi, 2006, p. 155). In this way, students get feedback and correct their mistakes until they get a well-constructed text.

Publishing Strategies and activities.

In this stage students publish their writing and share it with an appropriate audience, which are mostly the teachers, friends, family or community. Tompkins (2012) argued that publishing promotes students to improve their writing because they know they will share it with a real audience. Hence, students' having real audiences to share their writings enable them meaningfully responds to their writing and develops their confidence as authors. Graves and Hensen (1983) suggested that a good way to support learners to develop the concept of author is to have a special chair in the classroom, labeled as "author's chair" where students sit whenever they read their own books loud.

In addition of the authors chair activity, Tompkins (2012) pointed out that other ways that students share their published writing with other audiences out the classroom setting might be: "participating in a class "read-around" where students read each other's books, placing the writing material in the class library, posting it on the class website, sharing with parents and siblings, sending it to a pen pal, reading it to a student in another class, contributing to a class anthology, and submitting it to a literary magazine or e-zone" (p. 16).

Chapter 5: Conclusion

As this globalized world requires people to be able to interact with other individuals around the world. Therefore, English, recognized as a global language or lingua franca, plays an essential role in almost all the fields, enabling individuals from different backgrounds and ethnicities to communicate for different purposes, such as trading, technology, education, science, tourism, and entertainment. Taking into consideration these reasons, English has been implemented as a core subject in the school curriculums in various countries around the world. The main goal is help students develop linguistic competence in the language to expand their opportunities for interaction overseas.

The English language learning programs focus their goals on having learners become competent users of the language in the four domains, reading, listening, writing and speaking. Fortunately, English language learners count with a number of physical and online resources to support the development of their language skills inside and outside the classroom. Nevertheless, writing, which is considered a complex cognitive activity, requires explicit teaching, continuous feedback and practice. Learners need to have control over a series of elements, such as language conventions, vocabulary, structures and text organization.

Taking into consideration the complexity of the development of the writing skill for English language learners, this project provides a description of the process approach as a methodology for teaching writing to English learners. The goal of this product is to enhance English language teachers' use of the writing process approach to support writing instruction in

EFL classrooms. This methodology makes writing easier to teach and learn because the composition task is broken into manageable parts. The final product of this project is a booklet with the description of the writing process approach and its phases. Each phase or stage incorporates strategies and activities to help learners to focus on one task at a time and experience the value of peer and teacher feedback in developing effective written expression.

Working on this project changed my traditional perception about teaching and learning writing in EFL classrooms in which more emphasis is placed on language conventions rather than the content. My experience as a foreign language learner makes me conclude that teachers still give excessive importance to mechanical errors and the final written product rather than giving the students the experience of going through the process of writing as real writers. This understanding motivated me to develop a booklet that contains the description of the process approach and its stages as well as outline various strategies or activities that teachers can apply in each stage to facilitate the students writing progresses.

Appendices

Appendix A: The writing processes (Adapted from Laksmi, 2006, pp.146-147)

Table A1 The writing processes

Stage 1: Prewriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students write on topics based on their own experiences. • Students gather and organize ideas. • Students define a topic sentence. • Students write an outline for their writing.
Stage 2: Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students write a rough draft. • Students emphasize content rather than mechanics.
Stage 3: Revising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students reread their writings. • Students share their writings with teacher. • Students participate constructively in discussion about their writing with teacher. • Students make changes in their compositions to reflect the reactions and comments of teacher. Also, students make substantive rather than only minor changes.
Stage 4: Editing	<p>Students proofread their own writings.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students increasingly identify and correct their own mechanical errors.
Stage 5: Publishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students make the final copy of their writings. • Students publish their writings in appropriate forms. • Students share their finished writings with the teacher.

Appendix B: Self-revise questions (derived from Tribble, 1996, p. 116)

Table B1 Self-revise questions

1	Is it correctly organized on the page?
2	Is the information presented in a clear, logical order?
3	Have you put in all the information your reader needs?
4	Have you put in unnecessary information?

Appendix C: Editing checklist (Tribble, 1996, p. 116)

Table C1 Editing checklist (Tribble, 1996, p. 116)

1	I used the alternative word instead of repeating the same word again and again.	
2	I rewrote the sentences, which were hard to understand so as to make my thought clearer?	
3	I checked every single sentence to correct my grammatical mistakes.	
4	I checked every single word to correct my spelling mistakes	
5	I checked every single line of my writing to use punctuation marks correctly.	

Appendix D: Editing centers (Adapted from Tompkins, 2012, p. 14)

Table D1 Editing centers

Spelling Center	Pair work. Students proofread their rough drafts, locate misspelled words and turn to their classmates for assistance or use a dictionary to correct them.
Homophones Center	Students work with a partner to check their rough drafts for homophone errors.
Punctuation center	Students look for any missing punctuation or change any punctuation marks used incorrectly. Then they can use a highlighter pens to draw attention to the punctuation marks, score how many of each type they have used, and complete a chart to document their use of punctuation marks.
Capitalization center	Students check that each sentence in their writings begins with capital letter. They also check for proper nouns and adjectives that must be capitalized. Then students highlight all of the capital letters in their compositions.
Apostrophes center	Students highlight all the words with apostrophes in their compositions and correct any mistake they have made. Then they write C for contraction and P for possessive above each one.
Sentences center	Students analyze the sentences in their drafts and categorize them as simple, compound, complex, or fragment on a chart. Then they make any necessary changes.

Appendix E: Editing checklist (derived from Laksmi, 2006, p. 154).

Table E1 Editing checklist (derived from Laksmi, 2006, p. 154).

_____	1. I have circled misspelled words.
_____	2. I have checked all sentences beginning with capital letters.
_____	3. I have checked all sentences ending with punctuation marks.
_____	4. I have checked the structure of each sentence.

Appendix F: Appendix Proofreaders' marks (derived from Tompkins, 2012, p.13).

Figure F1 Proofreaders' marks

Delete		There were cots to sleep on and food to eat on at the shelter.
Insert		Mrs. Kim's cat is the color ^{of} carrots.
Indent paragraph		<p>Riots are bad. People can get hurt and buildings can get burned down but good things can happen too. People can learn to be friends.</p>
Capitalize		Daniel and his mom didn't like <u>m</u> rs. Kim or her cat.
Change to lowercase		People were R ioting because they were angry.
Add period		I think Daniel's mom and Mrs. Kim will become friends.
Add comma		They steal things, and they burn down buildings in a riot.
Add apostrophe		Daniel's cat was named Jasmine.

Appendix G: Correction symbols (adapted from Harmer, 2004, p. 111)

Figure G1 Correction symbols

Symbol	Meaning	Example of error
<i>S</i>	A spelling error	<i>He has a <u>fuunny</u> hairstyle.</i>
<i>WO</i>	A mistake in word order	<i>I <u>like very much</u> it.</i>
<i>G</i>	A grammar mistake	<i><u>He give</u> us only a half hour for dinner without any other rest.</i>
<i>T</i>	Wrong verb tense	<i>I went to the bookshop and I <u>buy</u> a book.</i>
<i>C</i>	Concord mistake (e.g. subject and verb agreement)	<i><u>He always telling</u> the dumb jokes.</i>
<i>Λ</i>	Something has been left out.	<i>I <u>Λ</u> too tired.</i>
<i>WW</i>	Wrong word	<i>I like and interest <u>on</u> my job.</i>
<i>{ }</i>	Something is not necessary.	<i>She wasn't {very} funny enough.</i>
<i>?M</i>	The meaning is unclear.	<i>I don't like the hours 4 to 9.</i>
<i>P</i>	A punctuation mistake	<i><u>one of my coworkers</u> is Shorsh.</i>
<i>F/I</i>	Too formal or informal	<i>We didn't have enough time to have a <u>chat</u>.</i>

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